Contemporary Psychology

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On the Impact of Stimulus Impact

SALVATORE R. MADDI and DONALD W. FISKE

Donald W. Fiske and **Salvatore R. Maddi**

Functions of Varied Experience. Homewood, Ill.: The Dorsey Press, 1961. Pp. v + 501. $10.60 (trade) $7.95 (college).

Reviewed by JACOB O. SINES

Donald Fiske, one of the two authors, did graduate study at Harvard and the University of Michigan, and received a PhD in 1948 from the latter. From Ann Arbor he moved to the University of Chicago where he is now a professor of psychology. With Lowell Kelly he co-authored The Prediction of Performance in Clinical Psychology *(1951). He is the 1962 President of the Midwestern Psychological Association. Salvatore Maddi, Fiske's co-author here, is a 1960 PhD from Harvard and a 1962 Assistant Professor at the University of Chicago. He has been a USPHS fellow and a clinical psychology fellow at the Judge Baker Guidance Center. Jacob O. Sines, the reviewer, received his PhD from Michigan State University. A couple of years later he joined the organicists at the Washington University School of Medicine where he was engaged in research in EEG, stress, and physiological psychology, with particular interest in Malmo's concept of activation. He emerged from St. Louis, after four years, as a Diplomate in Clinical Psychology and with a good start on his two present and major interests—behavior genetics and objective methods for the prediction of behavior. In the Department of Psychiatry of the University of Missouri's Medical Center, where he is now an associate professor and Chief of the Psychology Section, he is doing something about both of these interests.*

THIS highly significant book deals with the critically important function of variation in stimulation in maintaining level of activation. (The concept, level of activation, is used by the authors to designate a state of central nervous system excitation, probably in the reticular formation.) Variation in stimulation serves as one of the basic determiners of level of activation and a great deal of behavior is interpreted as the organism's efforts to increase or decrease stimulus *impact*, the activating property of stimulation.

Eight major propositions convey the conceptual framework which is offered. As the authors point out, some of the concepts involved are familiar ones which have been stated by others (Hebb, 1955; Malmo, 1958; Bindra, 1960) or are generalizations based on well known empirical findings. The authors' preliminary integration of them, and the novel aspects of their formulation of such notions as optimal *(normal* or *characteristic) level of activation* and *impact*, are significant contributions to the rapidly changing concept of motivation.

Impact is determined by variation, by intensity, and by meaningfulness of stimulation. While the latter two variables, intensity and meaningfulness, might be considered adequate to explain the "stimulating" effect of stimulation, the authors effectively point up the awkwardness of theory which follows from the reliance on these two variables alone when one attempts to explain exploratory behavior, play, and alternation behavior.

A comprehensive analysis of the determiners of behavior must account for behavior that occurs in the absence of specific motivations traditionally considered drives. By developing carefully the theoretical utility of the concept of variation in stimulation the authors are able to explain behavior which is not classically motivated, and

they thereby avoid opening the theoretician's Pandora's box which would be the result of postulating an exploratory drive, as some current theorists advocate.

Frequent and essential references are made to the concepts of optimal, normal or characteristic levels, although the authors never do come to grips with the problems of defining these notions in the specific. It turns out, however, that in their conceptual scheme there are *levels*, not *a level*, of activation which are optimal, normal or characteristic. There may be an optimal level of activation for each different task facing an organism. Likewise, the stage in the sleep-wakefulness cycle determines in large part what a normal or characteristic level of activation may be at a given time of day. Even further, though not essential to their point of view, Fiske and Maddi note that individual organisms themselves may have optimal or normal levels of activation that are idiosyncratic.

In the event that all of these aspects of activation level were to be considered at one time, behavior could be viewed as the organism's active impact-modifying efforts, resulting in oscillatory approaches to a baseline activation level on whose relatively long range regular cycles there are superimposed a variable number of irregular undulations.

For all of its complexity, a conceptualization of this sort may well allow greater ultimate simplicity and accuracy in the prediction and control of behavior than would be possible without it.

A FORMAL theory of behavior is not offered in this book. The conceptual framework reflects at all times the authors' concern with the important function of variation in stimulation in maintaining the economy and efficiency of behavior. The hope is expressed that from this framework a more precise theory may arise.

The authors have paused at a number of points in their discussion, sometimes to speculate on the relevance of their concepts to topics not directly considered, such as learning and sensation, sometimes to offer quite specific predictions based on their conceptual scheme. These tentative extensions beyond the intended coverage of the book enrich the effort considerably.

The eight contributed chapters were not selected as hard-hitting and incisive support for the authors' position. A wide variety of topics is covered and the book amply satisfies the stated hope that the variation in stimulation experienced by the reader "contribute to his interest and enjoyment, especially as he notes the common elements and themes underlying the diversity."

The authors have indicated that their ". . . conceptualization is an attempt to use one set of propositions to interpret a number of topics and thereby to identify their essential interrelationships." As mentioned above, the range of topics is wide. The reader is able to consider the effects and value of variation in stimulation in relation to exploratory behavior and play in young organisms, performance during monotonous tasks, reactions to restricted stimulation, aesthetic appreciation and finally sleep and dreaming, as well as other topics.

There is great variability in the adequacy with which the authors' conceptual scheme is able to comprehend the numerous phenomena considered. Exploratory behavior and alternation behavior appear to be most thoroughly compatible with the authors' formulations. On the other hand no attempt is made to integrate the discussion of sleep with the conceptual scheme, although a number of possible relationships are suggested between characteristic level of waking activation and depth of sleep or level of activation during sleep.

WHILE the lack of formality and specificity may frustrate the reader's need for closure, it should maintain his anticipation and interest at a high level. The authors quite rightly point out on several occasions that specificity and precision have given way to comprehensiveness in this preliminary conceptualization. The authors' intent has been implemented well and broadly if not in exquisite detail—they have presented a massive defense for the fundamental importance of variation of stimulation. In doing so they have amplified the concept of activation which threatens to unseat drive as the concept without which a compleat theory of behavior cannot do.

A notable high point of enjoyment in reading this book was the chapter contributed by J. R. Platt, a physicist. In his consideration of aesthetic appreciation Platt takes the reader on ". . . a sort of ramble through a number of fields, from natural science on the one hand to aesthetic criticism on the other," a ramble well worth taking for members of APA Divisions 3, 7, and 12, as well as 10.

This book was designed to serve as a basic text in advanced undergraduate and graduate courses in motivation, exploratory behavior, and curiosity. It is more likely to be used as one of several texts in such courses, along with others providing a more systematic treatment of learning. As it is, this volume will surely succeed in spurring not only research but also theoretical attempts to make a smooth integration of observable behavior and current neurophysiological information. The authors have effectively demonstrated that the important function of variation in stimulation can not be ignored in psychological theory.

The Other End of the Life Span

Paul H. Hoch and Joseph Zubin (Eds.)

Psychopathology of Aging. New York: Grune & Stratton, 1961. Pp. v + 321. $9.75.

Reviewed by IVAN N. MENSH

Paul Hoch and Joseph Zubin, editors of the present volume, are old hands at editorial collaboration, having worked together for the last fourteen years on the series of reports coming from the annual conferences of the American Psychopathological Association. Paul Hoch is commissioner of mental health for the State of New York. Joseph

Zubin is chief of psychiatric research (Biometrics) of the New York State Department of Mental Hygiene. Ivan Mensh, the reviewer, besides being a ready, willing and able reviewer for CP *(this is his sixth review), is head of medical psychology at the School of Medicine at the University of California at Los Angeles and has a long history of involvement with gerontological matters. He has carried out research in the area, has directed research in the area, has consulted on research in the area, has reported to a number of congresses on research in the area and, finally, is President-elect of the APA Division of Maturity and Old Age.*

THE American Psychopathological Association has lived through 50 years since the inauguration of its first president, Adolf Meyer. Since 1948 it has held annual conferences, each organized around a central theme. The 1960 conference, at the 50th annual meeting, rounded out a theme begun in 1954 with a conference on the psychopathology of childhood. Hoch and Zubin express that theme in their editorial preface ". . . two most crucial problems in psychopathology today are at the two ends of the life span."

The conference was built around four areas of investigation—epidemiology, psychological and sociological studies, psychophysiology and genetics, and problems of clinical practice and management. The report of the conference provides two major insights into the study of the aging process. First, the fact that nearly one-half of the reports presented come from projects having USPHS support indicates the scope of federal aid in gerontological research. Local support of research still lags far behind the demand for services to the aged, few of which have been evaluated in any systematic, objective way. Second, there is the impressive range of the ongoing work on aging. This book presents an extensive array of experimental investigations, including reports from a number of nationally known gerontological teams; to this array, the work of Welford's group in England adds the international touch; and, finally, there are clinical reports to provide stimulating material for readers who deal with geriatric patients in clinical rather than research interactions.

Represented among the studies are the Kansas City Study of Adults; the New York State study of city and state hospitals, homes for the aged, and nursing homes; the work of Gantt's Hopkins group; contributions from the Boston Age Center of New England; a report from Simon's team on its study of aged males entering the San Francisco General Hospital; the NIMH Study of Healthy Elderly Men; Kallmann's application of his twin and sib genetic studies to samples of the senescent of New York State; the Duke University project of Busse et al; and Wechsler's presidential address on intelligence, memory and the aging process.

Several contributors discuss their research findings and theoretical orientation in the framework of one of the more recent theories of psychological and social behaviors related to "disengagement." This process is seen as either a one-sided or a mutual, either an active or a passive, phenomenon of older individuals in relation to their peers and to younger members of their social system. It might have been predicted that two of the investigators of disengagement find themselves in diametric conflict; one of them finds disengagement associated with pathological adjustment, while the other reports data suggesting disengagement may be a normal, adjustive behavior among older citizens.

Finally, one notes with satisfaction the statement of caution, by several members of the conference group, concerning the use of incomplete data and the consequent dangers in interpreting such data. This caution highlights one of the most significant problems in gerontological research and especially in geriatric studies—the generalizations too frequently drawn without regard to the errors of inadequate initial sampling and of the vitiating effects of attrition by motivational changes, injury, disease, and death of older subjects.

Tools for Brain Research

Ray S. Snider and William T. Niemer

A Stereotaxic Atlas of the Cat Brain. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961. Pp. 132. $12.50.

Ray S. Snider and John C. Lee

A Stereotaxic Atlas of the Monkey Brain. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961. Pp. 130. $12.50.

Reviewed by W. I. WELKER

Ray S. Snider, MD, who led the work on both of these volumes, is Professor of Anatomy at Northwestern School of Medicine, and is especially noted for his neurophysiological studies of the cerebellum. William T. Niemer, who worked with him on the cat brain, is Professor of Anatomy at Creighton University Medical School and John C. Lee, collaborator on the monkey brain, is Associate Professor of Psychiatry at the University of Chicago Medical School. The reviewer, W. I. Welker, took his PhD in psychology at the University of Chicago in 1954 and since then has been fulltime in neurophysiological, neuroanatomical and behavioral research. He is now an assistant professor at the University of Wisconsin and works there in the Laboratory of Neurophysiology.

A STEREOTAXIC atlas of the brain has two main uses: (1) as a guide to the placement of the tip of a mechanical probe into a particular locus within the brain by means of a stereotaxic instrument, and (2) as a descriptive, pictorial guide to the various major fiber and cellular structures within the brain. Both these uses are designed to promote a more accurate and thorough understanding of structures and functions of the nervous system. The cat and monkey atlases published by Prof. Snider and

his colleagues were prepared to achieve these ends.

When used for stereotaxic purposes an atlas specifies the position of any particular neural structure in terms of three numbers. These numbers refer to distances from the three standard planes (coronal, sagittal and horizontal) which are defined by skull landmarks when the animal's head is fixed within the stereotaxic instrument in the prescribed manner. As experimental tools, a stereotaxic atlas and instrument can be used to place electrodes into the brain in order to produce lesions, record electrical activity, stimulate neural masses, or inject chemicals. The extent to which these tools accomplish these aims accurately and reliably depends on the care and skill with which the atlas is *used* as well as *prepared*. Final judgment regarding the adequacy of a stereotaxic atlas must await its successful experimental use by investigators in various laboratories.

With respect to these problems, the authors discuss several sources of unreliability in electrode placement when using a stereotaxic atlas. They indicate for the reader the great care that has been used in the preparation and checking out of a wealth of experimental and normal material in the preparation of these atlases. Both volumes are unique in that they give a more extensive stereotaxic and photographic coverage of both upper and lower brain stem regions for the cat and the monkey than do any other available atlases. They represent a completion of the work originally envisaged and begun by Prof. Ranson and his colleagues at Northwestern University.

A comparison of specific centrally located cerebral landmarks in these atlases with those in either the atlas prepared by Jasper and Ajmone-Marsan (1954) for the cat, or that by Olszewski (1952) for the monkey, indicates differences of 0.5 mm or less.

To MANY students of the brain, the second use of an atlas mentioned above is more important than the first. Thus, an atlas indicates the three dimensional organization of various cellular and fiber structures, and shows what they look like under low power magnification. Moreover, this use of an atlas is not restricted to the particular species for which it is prepared since all mammals have essentially the same number and types of nuclear and fiber structures. The atlases reviewed here seem well suited for this type of use.

Both atlases have been similarly prepared. The plates consist of photomicrographs of a series of coronal sections from over 60 regularly spaced levels from each animal type. The format on opposing pages is conveniently balanced so that sections from the two sides of the brain are on opposing pages, one stained for cell bodies and the other for myelinated fibers. All sections are enlarged to about 10X actual size, and although not intended to show accurate cytological details, the major cellular and fiber patterns are visible. A useful alphabetical list of all anatomical terms is included, with cross references to those plates upon which the structures are located. Moreover, each plate is accompanied by a list of the major cerebral structures located there.

In point of criticism, a more realistic impression of the external morphology of the brains depicted in the introduction to each atlas would have been achieved if photographs of actual brains had been used instead of artists' drawings. The reviewer also considers it unfortunate that black lines were used to connect the center of identifiable nuclear regions or fiber bundles with the appropriate labels in the margin. These connecting lines detract from the general appearance of the atlases as well as obliterate those portions of the brain tissue which lie beneath them. They thus tend to make perception of the configuration of some of the brain structures more difficult.

Despite these few detracting features, both atlases should prove to be useful contributions to the literature of comparative studies of brain structure and function.

Foresight is the last gift of gods to men.

—ALFRED NORTH WHITEHEAD

Symbols that Bite

Weston LaBarre

They Shall Take Up Serpents: Psychology of the Snake-Handling Cult. Minneapolis, Minn.: University of Minnesota Press, 1962. Pp. 208. $3.75.

Reviewed by JOHN ARSENIAN

The author, Weston LaBarre, is a Yale-trained anthropologist and is very probably the only one of such who is also a Fellow of the American Psychiatric Association. His period as Social Science Research Council Fellow at the Menninger Clinic undoubtedly has a connection with the latter fact. He is now Professor of Anthropology at Duke University and is the author of The Human Animal *(1954). The reviewer, John Arsenian, learned about snakes as organisms while he was growing up on New England farms and about snakes as symbols during his formal education in the Boston area, which culminated with his PhD at Harvard. He is now Director of Psychological Research at the Boston State Hospital and he helps keep that institution out of the category of snake pits. He also maintains official contact with graduate students from both Harvard and Boston Universities and reports that he occasionally sneaks a non-snakey idea into their heads.*

WAS it in hortatory hyperbole that Jesus addressed his disciples on the powers of faith to cause men to speak with new tongues, heal the sick and give grace to those who take up serpents and drink any deadly thing? This book is about those disposed to take literally these sayings—particularly about those who take up serpents.

The book is divided into three sections of about equal length, the first of which deals with the origins and spread of the snake-handling cult in Southern United States. Beginning with a naturalistic description of a cult meeting, it collates eye-witness, magazine and newspaper accounts prompted by the sensational aspect of snake-handling along

with the cult's contentions with the law. There are verbal sketches of cult preachers, people and practices, including items on the deaths of some 20 "victims." George W. Hensley, founder of the cult—and probably its 17th fatality after about 45 years of snake-handling—was nipped in his 70th year. "I know I am going to go. It is God's will." October 1961 marks the last reported death by snake bite in this book with the note: "The snake-handling cult is still vigorous at present in some places" (49).

There are ten stunning photographs which capture the fascination of the mixed audience for the serpents, the style of handling them, trance reactions of some communicants, and the marked informality of meetings, accompanied by accordion and guitar with cult leader and serpent in intimate contact with those of the flock who so desire.

The second section labeled "the symbolism" is wonderfully erudite on snake cults in Africa and the Near East. But the third chapter seems inappropriately titled "Religion and Psychiatry" as it, too, is loaded with snake lore with only passing reference to psychiatry. There is a lurking premise that prelogical elements have crept into Western religions, rituals and beliefs—remember the serpent's part in the eviction of the primal pair from paradise?

This reader was surprised to learn that "man has more myths by far about snakes than about any other single animal" (92) and the author's detailing of the multiplicity of symbolizing expressed in world folklore about snakes is arresting: the creator, death, lightning, rain, fertility, immortality, the familiar phallus, sin, and evil.

In the last section on "the people" the author begins with the salient question: "What are they like, psychologically?" His one-chapter concentration in depth on one cult leader appears unconvincing, perhaps because of the preconceptualized, fragmentary and second-hand interview material. Two chapters which follow use the same biographical data to penetrate and illuminate the psychology of a snake cultist and psychopathy and culture. Here the author's scholarship serves him less well because of the slippery nature of the concept of "psychopath" which LaBarre, uncharitably, brings to bear.

Despite the author's deft skill with psychoanalytic constructs the resulting image seems like a skeleton between two classic, pious frauds, Elmer Gantry and Journeyman Jones. The wretched lot of the poor whites attracted to snake-handling is documented in the last chapter and is conceptualized in terms of repression and pathologic derivatives. It would seem more to the point to have asked some representative practitioners what the cult meetings meant to them—what of their fascination, frenzy, terror, hypnotic trance and ecstacy? What of their snake-handling? What of their religious experience of fellowship, purgation, and salvation?

If it seems viperous to suggest that these questions remain unclearly answered, do not recoil from Weston LaBarre's fascinating, intricately woven little book: it startles, stirs deeply, wiggles wonderously, and is alive after you have dispatched it.

Guidance for Counselors

C. H. Patterson

Counseling and Guidance in Schools: A First Course. New York: Harper, 1962. Pp. vii + 382. $4.75.

Reviewed by DUGALD S. ARBUCKLE

C. H. Patterson, the author, received his PhD degree at the University of Minnesota and is now Professor of Education at the University of Illinois. Before and since his graduate work he has served in the Air Force, has worked ten years for the Veterans Administration, and with all, has produced six children and five books. The reviewer, Dugald Arbuckle, is a former Canadian who did graduate work at the Universtiy of Chicago and who, on his way to his present professorship in education at Boston University has held positions at Washington State College, Colorado State College, New York University, Gammon Seminary, Brigham Young University, the University of Hawaii, University of Texas, and the Central College of Washington. He belongs to 21 assorted organizations including the Alpine Club of Canada, and has been president or chairman of most of them. He, like the author, has produced five books, all in the area of counseling. The number of children is exactly the same as the number of books. Among his latest books are Guidance & Counseling in the Classroom *(1957),* Counseling: An Introduction *(1961) and* Pupil Personnel Service in American Schools *(1962). His approach to counseling is client-centered.*

THIS book consists of 18 chapters organized into five parts: Introduction, Qualifications for Counseling and Guidance, Basic Counseling Services, Counseling Special Groups, Relationships with other Personnel Services, and Improving Services.

In an over-all survey of the book, it is clear that the author writes from his own particular client-centered or self-actualizing frame of reference, although he appears at times to be stretching this frame so far as to make it all things to all men. He shares the semantic difficulties encountered by other writers in the field and the organization of his material appears to be somewhat confused; he does not appear to this reviewer to have achieved, any more successfully than have other writers in this field, his stated objectives of emphasizing principles and problems rather than procedures and techniques. He presents several chapters however,

that are both new and excellent, and he has achieved an unstated objective of writing an excellent book on client-centered counseling and its relationship to certain pupil personnel services in the schools. In the following paragraphs the reviewer will attempt to cite the evidence that led him to these appraisals.

At several points in the book, the author presents the client-centered counselor as a rather dominating person, although this is surely *not* the counselor as Patterson actually sees him. In Chapter 10: "Occupational Information in Counseling," for example, the author says . . . "He presents information . . ." (p. 180), then on the next page he states "The use of information . . . for the purpose of directing the client to a specific goal . . . violates the principles of self determination." Patterson, possibly unwittingly, gives the impression that the client-centered counselor can function as such in practically every phase of vocational and other personnel services. This in turn, may be due to the author's failure to differentiate with enough clarity between guidance and personnel services on one hand and counseling on the other; he uses "counseling and guidance" as a single term. Actually, the author is discussing client-centered counseling, and other guidance and personnel services are referred to only in terms of their relationship to client-centered counseling. This is quite reasonable, but the uninitiated student may get a rather narrow impression of just what constitutes guidance and personnel services. Thus Chapter 8, "Educational-Vocational Counseling," presents an excellent discussion of the relationship between information and counseling, including client-centered counseling, but in Chapter 10, "Occupational Information in Counseling," the author, while making minimal reference to occupational information services, conveys the impression that he is writing about services, even though they all come under the umbrella of counseling.

Chapter 12, "Personal Counseling," is another illustration of semantic confusion. Although the field of the author is personal counseling, and although he is talking about personal counseling throughout the book (what is client-centered if not personal?), he devotes only 12 pages to a chapter on personal counseling. Again, the uninitiated reader may come to the conclusion certainly not intended by Patterson that there is a sharp difference between educational and vocational counseling on one hand and personal counseling on the other.

The organization of the material in a book is, of course, the personal preference of the author, but "disjointed" was the feeling this reviewer had as he read the book. The content of some chapters does not bear too much resemblance to the title of the chapter, parts of some chapters would appear to more logically fit into other chapters, some of the chapters are not related to the titles of the "Parts," and some chapters seem to be misplaced in the book.

Chapter 3, "Organization and Administration of Guidance Services," for example, discusses counseling relationships, and the conflicting functions of counselors and other personnel, but many of the problems and issues in organizing and administering a personnel services program are discussed in Chapter 16, "Relationships with Other School Personnel" and Chapter 17, "Extraschool Relationships." Some parts of Chapter 16 might better have been found in the chapter discussing the teacher in guidance, while other parts might have been a separate chapter describing the functions of certain personnel workers other than the school counselor.

Chapter 11, "Group Activities in Guidance" bears little resemblance to Part III, Basic Counseling Services. Again, the author leaves a confused impression, in that he is actually discussing a few of the group activities that may be part of a personnel services program, but he refers to them as if they were counseling services. In Part IV, Counseling Special Groups, the author agrees that there is little to discuss on the subject of counseling and writes two excellent chapters on the problems, the measurement and the identification of the gifted, the underachiever and the handicapped child.

There is a surprising lack of reference to the child, and it is not until one gets to Chapter 13, "Some Problems in Counseling in Schools," that we read a bit about the problems of the child and his need for counseling. Actually, a good part of this chapter is concerned with the concepts that the child has of the counselor, and his relationships with him.

The author, in the preface, posed a difficult problem for himself in indicating that he would write about problems and issues, rather than techniques and methods. Patterson does discuss, with good reason, what might be done about some of the problems and issues, and the book is strengthened because he does so. The book is weakened, however, because of his lack of attention to the theoretical and philosophical concepts underlying counseling and personnel services. This book is on the "what" and the "how," and it is the "why" on which little emphasis is placed. Yet, despite all this, the reviewer feels that Patterson has written an excellent book for at least two reasons. One, he has presented concise evidence which indicates that the client-centered counselor can function most effectively as a school counselor. Two, several chapters, such as Chapter 4, "Selection for Counseling and Guidance," Chapter 6, "The Teacher in Guidance," Chapter 8, "Educational-Vocational Counseling," Chapter 9, "Testing in the Guidance Program," and Chapter 18, "In-Service Training and Research," are as good if not better than anything yet seen in the literature.

The idea common in scientific and other intellectual circles that science has nothing to do with values has been unfortunate and damaging, for it has tended to exclude the possibility of any scientific understanding of human experience itself. Science, apart from its practical exploitation, is no more materialistic than the humanities or religion and is just as much concerned with the ultimate meaning of things whether of matter or mind.

—Norman John Berrill
Man's Emerging Mind

Books to Come

Edward Bennett, James Degan, Joseph Spiegel, 54 assorted specialists from a wide variety of disciplines and McGraw-Hill have all joined skills and forces to produce a volume, *Human Factors in Technology,* due to see the light of day before 1962 expires. Historically, the volume began at the fourth annual meeting of The Human Factors Society, a conclave held at MIT in 1960. When regarded retrospectively a decade from now it probably will be seen as the first volume to present in one place an over-view of the wide range of scientific and engineering activities involved when man puts his mind to the understanding—and rearranging—of the interplay between himself and his modern technology.

Human factors research burgeons. So does mathematical psychology; and not unrelatedly. *CP* reported recently (*CP,* Aug. 1962, **7,** 290) that Stanford University Press plans to produce annual volumes entitled *Studies in Mathematical Psychology.* Still more recently *(CP,* Sept. 1962, **7,** 325) there was the report that Wiley had on its way a book by Robert Bush, Eugene Galanter and Duncan Luce to be launched under the title of *Handbook of Mathematical Psychology.* As far as *CP* now knows the intelligence from Stanford still stands. But the earlier report on the Wiley venture was a large understatement. Bush, Galanter and Luce are not producing *a* volume on mathematical psychology. They are doing at least *five* volumes—three of a *Handbook* and two of related readings. The first *Handbook* volume, as the editors began to collect (and to write) material, soon grew too heavy for any but muscular readers. (Apparently it is not yet possible to write with mathematical concision about mathematical psychology.) So the one volume fissed into two. And still there was nutritious material not included; volume three was started. Volume I of the *Handbook* will appear in the spring of 1963, Volume II a month or three later, with Volume III planned for mid-1964. The books of readings will probably appear along with the first two volumes of the *Handbook. CP* will begin at once to search for reviewers who can write in non-technical English about books in technical English about mathematical matters.

CP's readers may already have seen the new book by Lois Barclay Murphy, *The Widening World of Childhood: Paths toward Mastery.* It is published by Basic Books and is one of a series to come out of the longitudinal studies conducted by Dr. Murphy and her collaborators at Topeka, Kansas. The book, as did others in the series, copes with normal coping, and brings additional longitudinal data to bear. There are still other books to come ere this Topeka story is complete.

Also coming in the area of child psychology is a new title (Wiley, Jan. or Feb., 1963) with a familiar ring, *Six Cultures: Studies of Child Training.* The book grows out of a cross-cultural study planned by (and here's the familiar ring) John Whiting, Irving Child and William Lambert. Beatrice Whiting, who was persuaded by *CP* to talk about the book, reports with what is very probably misplaced modesty that her role in the book was that of "correspondent and coordinator." The work will present comparable data on child training in six cultural settings, with New England, USA, one of the six.

Another contribution in the child area is a book of readings, *Research in Child Psychology,* which Holt, Rinehart and Winston persuaded David Palermo and Lewis Lipsitt to compile. Among the aims of its editors is that of pointing up the experimental contributions coming from child psychology into the general literature. The book is due in the spring of 1963.

Albert and Bernice Lott, also working with Holt, Rinehart and Winston, will spawn a spring book which they think, without absolute certainty, will be titled *Negro and White Youth: A Psychological Study in a Border State Community.* The uncertainty about the title is due to the fact that it has to satisfy the authors, the publisher and Theodore Newcomb, H, R & W's psychological editor. The psychological study is primarily a comparative one of the goals and attributes of Negro and white high school seniors. The border state is Kentucky. The Lotts do not confine their collaboration to the production of research monographs: a second child will appear soon after the book hits the book store.

Somebody, perhaps Ted Newcomb among others, has been very busy at Holt, Rinehart and Winston. A third spring title will be Leon H. Levy's *Psychological Interpretation,* a book its author hopes will help psychologists recover from their unreasonable avoidance responses to diagnostic interpretation; interpretation, he feels, has an essential continuity with other intellectual activities and should not be denigrated but—or at least until—understood. The book will be cognitive in orientation, will have no unconscious.

D. A. Rethlingshafer has done a book, *Motivation as Related to Personality,* which McGraw-Hill will bring out early in 1963. The author interviews herself as follows: "Why another book on motivation? Because the field is so complex that it needs not only one but many more. Moreover, it needs books on different areas in motivation until finally this complicated field will disappear, i.e., as motivation. Then we will have books not on motivation but on sensitization, on tension, on drives as well as drive, on rewards, on incentives and on other related topics."

—F. H. S.

On Knowledge, Skill and Management

Paul R. Lawrence and 7 Associates

Organizational Behavior and Administration: Cases, Concepts, and Research Findings. Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey Press and Richard D. Irwin, 1961. Pp. xxv + 910. $7.95 (college) $10.60 (trade).

Reviewed by WARREN G. BENNIS

All eight of the men who worked to produce this book were, at the time of its conception and preparation, members of the faculty of the Graduate School of Business Administration of Harvard University. The theme of their collaboration was their shared concern for the creation of a solid social science basis for managerial behavior. Warren G. Bennis, the reviewer, makes a total of at least nine individuals who share such a concern and such an aspiration. Dr. Bennis first became interested in organizational and managerial matters when he encountered Douglas MacGregor at Antioch College. He came to MIT for his PhD, then went for three years to Boston University before coming back to MIT, where he now holds an appointment as Associate Professor in the School of Industrial Management. The academic year of 61-62 he spent at IMEDE, a management development school associated with the University of Lausanne, Switzerland. He co-edited, with Kenneth Benne and Robert Chin The Planning of Change *(1961), a book reflecting his interest in the problems of adapting organization and organizational change to changing technological demands. In a related area, he is now preparing a manuscript on sensitivity training as an instrument in managerial and organizational development.*

THE eight men who prepared this book have managed to put together 1) an enormously useful and integrated set of social science readings (drawn mainly from social psychology and sociology), and 2) an array of case studies, all designed to educate students of business toward more personal competence in dealing with the social realities they will confront and for the social skills they will require.

How this formidable task has been accomplished can be put in perspective if we examine the authors' conception of the *role of the modern manager.* Their conception marks a significant social change, for it no longer features the owner of a fairly simple, repetitive factory enterprise who can "run his business" unhampered by restrictive social systems such as unions and governments. Rather, the modern manager is viewed as being at the center of an intricate and complicated social environment consisting of employees, consumers, shareholders, government, unions, suppliers, and competitors—to mention only the most important social boundaries. The pattern of relations, interplay, and transactions between the managers and these relevant social institutions determine to a large extent the key elements in the manager's role. And if we add to this cat's cradle some equally profound factors such as 1) the increasing size and scope of business organizations, 2) the fact that most managers, to use Berle's phrase, have "power without property," 3) the increased utilization of science and its acceleration of the rate of change, 4) the increased professionalization of management and accompanying interest in "management science," 5) the growing concern with the "human side of enterprise,"—if we look at all these factors, then we may understand the perplexity as well as the complexity of the manager's role.

The book falls into two sections, which reflect this conception. The first half covers what Roethlisberger calls the "social territory of the administrator." These three social areas are Work Group Behavior, Intergroup Behavior (which Lazarsfeld in the Foreword, claims "is the most exciting of the whole collection") and Organizational Behavior and the Wider Culture. The other half encounters the dynamic components: the ways in which the manager operates, transacts, and negotiates within these structures. This section includes the manager in his supervisory capacity, as an Agent of Organizational Change, and as a Diagnostician for Remedial Action.

THE authors acted in three capacities: as compilers, as summarizers, and as authors. In the first instance they excerpted articles from the general literature; as summarizers, they rewrote and transplanted articles and booklength theories, such as Turner's masterful rendition of Homans' theory or Seiler's treatment of Intergroup Behavior. Finally, as authors, they wrote fresh syntheses of various papers, Clark's reformulation of "motivation in work groups" being a prime exemplar.

A typical section, that on Work Group Behavior, demonstrates the authors' approach. This section includes the classic Hawthorne experiments, Homans' general theory of social interaction, a number of morale and productivity studies, some sociometric analyses, material dealing with the effects of technology on behavior, and the question of motivation in work groups. The institutional settings are varied and include industrial-factory groups, bomber crews, restaurants, insurance companies, scientific laboratories, and others.

Over half of this section's 215 pages are made up of 12 case studies of four types: cases that *describe* administrative situations, cases designed for *drill*

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in the use of concepts, cases which *report research* efforts, and cases that deal with *responsibility in administrative action.* There are also an admirable number of *sequential* cases; i.e. cases which are presented in chronological time-slices that may be used to encourage a hypothetical and experimental attitude in the classroom. The "Changing Cage," for example, is a case in five stages. Here the behavioral effects caused by the relocation of an office group into a more visible and permeable situation are vividly described in terms of morale, performance, group functioning and motivation.

These sequential cases are magnificent crucibles for applying a diagnostic and clinical orientation to administrative situations; they are also a dangerous and exciting game, for the utility of concepts can be starkly evaluated by their predictive yields.

The only criticism I would make about the selection of cases is the emphasis on the rank-and-file worker and first-line supervision and relative neglect of the upper stratosphere of managerial life. Even with this possible defect, the cases, for the most part, provide deep shafts of illumination into industrial life, a life that social scientists seldom encounter in the typical research reports where spartan outcomes, rather than complicated processes, are accentuated.

This, then, is the general structure of the volume: a set of cases which provide an empirical kaleidoscope of life in organizations, with all of its sweaty complexity, and a set of useful concepts which can be employed to filter and predict from a wilderness of data. These are the two main pivots of the book: an instinct for institutional realities and a conceptual thrust.

Less tangible, also important, and certainly pervasive is the authors' concern with "skill," or the dialectic between "knowledge AND skill." An educator, particularly one working with professional students, *must* worry about that common disease, the split vision between substantive knowledge and wise action. Can we teach wisdom? This volume enjoys a certain success—in bridging knowledge and skill—through its diagnostic orientation to administrative action, brought off by case analysis *cum* concepts.

But there is still another bridge between knowledge and skill which the authors strangely neglected. I am referring to the classroom behavior generated by case discussions and *its* relevance for administrative action. No one utilizing the case method can avoid observing how this method unleashes a powerful microcosm of behavior with many compelling analogies to managerial life. Sometimes, in fact, the student interactions can completely eclipse the actual case under discussion and make it seem like interesting shadowplay. I am referring to the leadership struggles, influence attempts, communication patterns, decision-making, and security operations which the students experience and *demonstrate* during the case discussion.

One example will illustrate this point. During a classroom discussion on the unhappy effects of conformity, a student was attacked for holding unorthodox views on this subject. While denouncing conformity in Aschen tones, they were practising what they denounced. Theory AND practice? Skill AND knowledge? Cannot the personal transactions which occur during case discussions, as part of the learning process, be utilized to replace the vicariousness of the case in order to approximate more closely the social realities the student will encounter?

More specifically, I would hope that the authors, in future editions, would augment the book with readings and cases relevant to classroom behavior.

I think it is unnecessary to comment on the selection of readings except to say that they seem to have caught the right balance between 'classics' and more recent research. I have only one quibble along these lines and that is when an excerpt is abridged so severely that the meaning of the research is difficult to understand. Rather somewhat longer and fewer papers than a series of one-page research summaries would have communicated more.

All in all I think the authors have succeeded in building a scientific approach to management and in helping to delineate a new concept for the role of the manager. I suspect that this book will be more widely used than the authors anticipated, for it certainly has relevance in all those professional schools (such as medicine, law, nursing) where social science is taking on greater salience. The authors have managed to get skill and knowledge on one skewer, with only a little nervous strain, and that is something of an achievement.

Handicapped Families of the Handicapped

J. Tizard and **Jacqueline C. Grad**

The Mentally Handicapped and their Families: A Social Survey. Maudsley Monographs, No. 7.) London: Oxford University Press, 1961. Pp. x + 146. 28s.

Reviewed by Bernard Farber

J. Tizard, the senior author, is a New Zealander who received a B. Litt. from Oxford University and a PhD in psychology from the University of London. He is presently a psychologist on the Scientific Staff of the Medical Research Council of the Institute of Psychiatry of Maudsley Hospital in London where his major interest falls in the area of social psychiatry. His collaborator here, Jacqueline Grad, is a sociologist with a PhD from the University of London who is now connected with the clinical psychiatry research unit at Graylingwell Hospital in Chichester. The reviewer, Bernard Farber is like Dr. Grad a sociologist with an interest in inter-personal relations in families with mentally retarded children. He is Associate Professor of Sociology at the University of Illinois and also holds an appointment in the Institute for Research on Exceptional Children. He has published extensively on the efforts of families to cope with mentally retarded children.

Tizard and Grad in order to throw light on the problems faced by families of severely handicapped persons,

conducted a study, using the survey method, of a sample of London families of severely retarded children. Use of survey technique to describe social problems is an honorable tradition in England. Nineteenth century surveys concentrated upon social effects of poverty. The twentieth century finds England a "welfare state" and surveys are likely to focus upon the relief of physical and mental illness. If we regard this survey as consonant with the English tradition, we ought not expect a highly theoretical investigation, but instead a clear description of the health and emotional problems faced by these families.

Unlike most American studies involving families of handicapped children, the Tizard and Grad investigation was based upon a probability sampling procedure. The survey sample consisted of 150 families with "idiots and imbeciles" at home and 100 families with a similarly retarded child in an institution. Because of the sampling procedure, the Tizard and Grad data provide corroboration for findings in other samples. For example, the present authors found:

1. Mongols are not more docile than other kinds of severely retarded individuals.

2. Siblings of a retarded child in an institution sometimes display more mental health problems than do siblings of a retarded child at home.

3. Families with a retarded child at home are found to be more limited in their social contacts than are families with a retarded child in an institution.

4. On the average, mentally defective children, including Mongols, tend to be born to older mothers than do other children.

5. Having a mentally retarded child tends to deter mothers from having another child.

Thus, the Tizard and Grad social survey not only presents much intrinsically interesting description but also confirms findings of other investigations. Indeed, Tizard and Grad, by introjecting vignettes to illustrate family problems vividly, have avoided the dull reporting characteristic of most survey research.

The present study is marred by two difficulties. The first difficulty lies in the samples selected. The second difficulty lies in the analysis of data.

The first problem has to do with the comparisons between families with a retarded child at home and families with a child in an institution. Much of the discussion is based on relative difficulties of home families and institution families. However, as the authors themselves recognize, to compare family problems when the child is at home with problems when the child is institutionalized is to ignore selective factors in institutionalization. Instead, if we are to understand the peculiar problems faced by families with a retarded child, it is necessary to contrast retarded-child families with families in which all the children are normal. We could then judge not only the harshness of problems associated with the presence of a defective child either at home or in an institution but also the different types of problems. Assuming the impossibility of undertaking a longitudinal investigation, Tizard and Grad probably would have portrayed family problems more adequately had they tried to match retarded-child and normal-child families on the basis of characteristics existing prior to the birth of the retarded child.

The second criticism of the Tizard and Grad presentation is that their analysis did not distinguish between problems of families with a defective *child* as compared with families with a defective *adult*. It is possible, for example, that family problems of the home group are concentrated among the younger children whereas problems of the institution group are concentrated in families with older children (or vice versa). Simply comparing home and institution families would not reveal age-concentrations of problems. Clarity of description of family problems might have been increased had analysis been performed by age of the child.

Within the limitations of the descriptive survey, Tizard and Grad have achieved their aims. The monograph is well-written and clear; the research was well planned and was executed with care.

Theory of Scores

Herbert Solomon (Ed.)

Studies in Item Analysis and Prediction. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1961. Pp. xii + 310. $8.75.

Reviewed by CHARLES T. MYERS

Herbert Solomon, who edited this volume, did his graduate work at Columbia and Stanford Universities, receiving a PhD in psychology from the latter institution in 1950. He has been head of the Statistics Bureau of the Office of Naval Research, and has taught at Columbia University. Presently he is Professor of Statistics and Education at Stanford University. Earlier he edited Mathematical Thinking in the Measurement of Behavior *(1960). The reviewer, Charles T. Myers, studied in the area of guidance at Columbia, and studied psychology at Princeton. He has been a test administrator of the Johnson O'Conner Research Foundation, and since 1947, with a year off in 1950 as a research scientist at the University of Texas, he has been with the Test Development Division of ETS. He says he is neither a mathematician nor a statistician; his research has been in the development of spatial relations tests and nonverbal reasoning tests. His most recently published article is "A Note on the Standard Length of a Test,"* Psychometrika, *1961,* **26,** 443-446.

IF ONE were to shout very loudly at a telegraph key, it is conceivable that the air waves would move the key and produce a signal miles away in the reaction of the telegraph sounder. It is very unlikely, however, that this signal would bear much resemblance to the sound used to activate the key. A much more valid transmission of signals would be achieved by translating the message into Morse code and interpreting the code produced by the sounder. This parable should be of interest to those whose business is to deal with the instruments by which test communications are translated into score units and later

interpreted as descriptions of the communicants. These communications are inexorably limited by the numerical nature of the instrument of communications, the test score. Thus the subject matter of the present book, score theory, is of crucial importance to the art of making and using tests.

A theory based on a chemical analysis of milk would not appropriately be called a theory of mammals. Correspondingly it seems inappropriate to call a theory based only on a mathematical analysis of scores by the name test theory. Therefore we prefer to use the phrase "score theory" for the subject matter of this book. On the other hand, it appears that since the work of Carl Brigham very little effort has been spent on developing a theory for any other aspect of testing. Score theory is the only theory of tests.

Regrets have been expressed that test score theory has not had a greater effect on test practice. It is possible that the effects of score theory have been more pervasive than is commonly recognized, but it does appear that there has been some unnecessary lag in these effects. This lag may be attributed in part to two influences: failure of testing practitioners to understand testing theorists, and failure of theorists, when they are understood, to convince the practitioners that the conclusions of theory were worth the risk and the cost. One risk appears to be that the assumptions necessary as a basis for theory are not close enough to the real world.

THIS BOOK exemplifies some of the problems in communication between theorists and practitioners. Most of the book is written in mathematicians' jargon which tends to limit communication to the brotherhood in the tradition of the Pythagoreans. The use by nonmathematicians of Latin abbreviations such as op. cit. in footnotes is perhaps no sillier than the mathematicians' way of introducing and defining symbols only in the running text, but it probably does less harm. An index of symbols on a fold-out page would not solve all problems of communication, but it could double the number of persons who would read the book with understanding. If the ability, Y, to read this book is a random variable distributed N(0,1) and if y is a real number such that individuals having $Y < y$ can hardly profit from reading the book, then y is a regrettably great positive number. In other words, most of the book is difficult to read. On the other hand, the chapters by Lazarsfeld and by Solomon demonstrate that it is possible to communicate score theory clearly and effectively.

Chapter One of the book forms an unfortunate introduction in that it deals with a problem that appears trivial from the point of view of the practitioner. It is stated here as a paradox that when all items inter-correlations are 1.0 and certain other conditions are true then the "validity" of the test cannot exceed .7979. It is clear that in this case this "validity" coefficient is a point-biserial coefficient which has a maximum value of .7979 in the stipulated conditions. It is not so clear why this is considered a problem. It appears to the practitioner that the author has gone to a great deal of trouble to demonstrate through complex mathematics something that was unavoidable as well as uninteresting. This "paradox" is uninteresting because in practice item intercorrelations never approach 1.0 and also because validity does not mean to the practitioner, nor to the APA Committee on Test Standards, what it has been used to mean here. Such theoretical developments make the practitioner skeptical that theory is much concerned with his problems. But it should be stated that this chapter provides a necessary introduction to developments in later chapters.

This is not intended to imply a rejection of theory. There are certainly plenty of unanswered theoretical questions for which answers are needed. For example, how should one design a test to measure growth instead of status. How should one compute the reliability of a program when parallel forms are used interchangeably. Or what can be said about the structure within an item when in theory items have always been treated as the indivisible atoms of test material. It may be that this book is a prerequisite to the solution of some of these questions.

This book contains much that is new and it represents a commendable and impressive amount of mathematical labor. We deeply value this effort and sincerely hope that its conclusions will soon be rewritten in simpler language and tested in practical applications. Those who wish more information about this book should consult the review by Frederic M. Lord in *Psychometrika.*

Free Floating Approach to Anxiety

Walter J. Garre

Basic Anxiety: A New Psychobiological Concept. New York: Philosophical Library, 1962. Pp. 123. $5.00.

Reviewed by LAWRENCE S. ROGERS

Walter J. Garre, the author, is a physician who began his medical training in Vienna and finished it in Chicago. After ten years of medical practice, he entered the field of psychiatry and is at present Senior Psychiatrist at the Camarillo State Hospital, California. The reviewer, Lawrence S. Rogers, took his doctorate with Otto Klineberg at Columbia in 1940. Since that time his primary area of interest has been psychotherapy. He has done it, has taught it and has administered others in performing it. Since 1947 he has been Chief Clinical Psychologist of the Mental Hygiene Clinic of the VA Hospital in Denver. Presently he is also Associate Clinical Professor of Psychology at the Colorado School of Medicine. He has served as President of the Colorado and Rocky Mountain Psychological Associations and of the Division of Psychologists in Public Service of APA. He is the current Chairman of the Colorado State Board of Psychologist Examiners.

THIS is a most unusual book. The tone is set in the preface, where

Dr. Garre states: "conclusions derived from observations of the attitudes, ideation, and reactions of large cross sections of the human population will still reflect only the basic attitudes of the observer, who can only see what he is emotionally free to see." Thus he disposes of psychology as the science of behavior. Equally jolting is the statement that a field of comparative psychology does not exist.

Since Dr. Garre feels that observations of human behavior cannot be objective, there can be but one approach: "serious and honest introspection." While recognizing the dangers, he feels that he has become self-objective, and is therefore holding out his ideas, theories, and philosophies for the examination of others.

For those reared in the rigorous tradition of behavioral science, such statements can represent either heresy, scientific naiveté, or a deliberate attempt to be different. Since Dr. Garre is a diplomate of the American Board of Psychiatry and Chief of Psychiatric Services at the VA Hospital in San Francisco, the reviewer assumes he is aware of the voluminous literature on anxiety and neurosis; but he clearly has chosen to present only his own ideas. Consequently there is no bibliography, no index, no footnotes, nor are research findings or clinical case material presented to support his ideas. No reference is made by Dr. Garre to other writers in the field.

However, if the reader is willing to take the book on the level of one man's introspection, he will be rewarded by a fascinating experience. Dr. Garre's concept of basic anxiety is not new as his title says it is. Over twenty years ago Karen Horney described basic anxiety in much the same way. Nor is Dr. Garre's concept of basic anxiety psychobiological, at least not in the tradition of Adolph Meyer. But what is new and different is Dr. Garre's capacity for bold and ingenious thinking developed from his concept of basic anxiety.

He postulates that every human mother shows to some degree a lack of acceptance of her off-spring, and a resentment toward her role of mother and wife. The child senses these feelings in the mother, and the emotional experience resulting from this threat is defined as basic anxiety. It can be manifested in three forms: one, the fear that the child will actually be destroyed by his mother; two, the fear that the mother will not protect him from danger; and three, the fear that the child might be abandoned. Children experiencing primarily the first form, it is postulated, will later develop or become especially vulnerable to disorders involving the sympathetic division of the autonomic nervous system, while youngsters experiencing predominately the third form of basic anxiety will be especially vulnerable to disorders involving the parasympathetic nervous system. The fear of not being protected tends to lead to an undue sensitivity to external irritants, and children would thus tend to show later allergenic reactions not only in the epidermis, but also in the respiratory tract and gastro-intestinal systems.

The key to the development of basic anxiety is the emotional climate between the parents. If the child is really welcome in the household and the parents have a good relationship, the child will not be used for emotional support by either parent, and there will be less basic anxiety. While the role of the father is not overlooked, it is certainly minimized by Dr. Garre, both in this discussion and subsequent parts of the book.

The author believes strongly that the mentally ill make a substantial contribution to the satisfactory functioning of the so-called mentally healthy. For example, he feels "to the degree that one child can satisfy the demands of the mother, these same demands no longer must be made of any other available member." It would be interesting to test this general hypothesis to see how often there are families where only one child becomes emotionally disturbed, and the others remain emotionally stable. Mental health administrators (and others) will be challenged when Dr. Garre questions "whether it is mere coincidence that emotionally far from adequate individuals so predominate in the administration to the needs of the emotionally deprived."

His ideas about drug addiction, training for psychotherapy, and juvenile delinquency are unconventional and startling. Psychotherapists are likely to be impressed by the author's clinical perceptiveness, but may question many of his ideas. Dr. Garre, for example, feels that one cannot be a good psychotherapist unless he has suffered the effects of emotional disorder, and has been successfully treated. Further, his ideas of the tripartite functions of the psychotherapist based on the three forms of basic anxiety seem to oversimplify the therapeutic process.

The chapters vary greatly as to style and content. Some are pregnant with interesting ideas, others are virtually barren. In spite of its many shortcomings, this book should have a wider audience than it will probably get. It could serve as an excellent source of ideas for theses for graduate students. Bold and unorthodox thinkers should be heard and their ideas tested.

Nurses Spoon Fed?

Jennifer M. Jarvis and John Gibson

Psychology for Nurses. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1962. Pp. 131. $4.50.

Reviewed by Dorris M. Speer

Jennifer Jarvis, the first of the two authors, is Senior Clinical Psychologist at St. Lawrence's Hospital in Caterham, Surrey, England. John Gibson, a physician, is Consultant Psychiatrist and Physician's Superintendent at the same hospital. He is also an Examiner to the General Nursing Council. The reviewer, Dorris Speer, is a registered nurse who is now Assistant Professor of Psychiatric Nursing at the University of Oregon School of Nursing. In the practice of her profession she has served both as staff nurse and as a head nurse, and has worked both in a state hospital setting and in open psychiatric wards in general hospitals. As a teacher she has

worked at both the undergraduate and graduate levels with both established and aspiring psychiatric nurses. Withal she maintains a steady conviction that mental health workers at all levels can profit from a knowledge, both conceptual and personal, of behavioral science.

THE authors, Jennifer M. Jarvis, AB., Diploma in Psychology, Clinical Psychologist and Dr. John Gibson, Consultant Psychiatrist of St. Lawrence Hospital, England, indicate that the aim of their work is to present a simple account of human psychology for nurses. However, lack of theoretical content, over-simplification of material and the lack of clinical application make it unsuitable to the professional nurse in this country. Educational requirements of the professional nurse in the United States are higher than in England. For instance, in our collegiate program of nursing, a minimum of thirty-six term hours is required in the social sciences. Fourteen of these credit hours are in Introductory Psychology, Introduction to Child Behavior and Abnormal Psychology. Therefore, we do not find it necessary for our students to use "watered down" psychology texts specifically for nurses. Even in the diploma programs, which are more service oriented, a minimum of six credit hours in psychology is required.

While this book could be at the right level of difficulty for a non-collegiate program, practical nurses or other non-professional nursing groups, it has severe limitations in this application, also. Despite allegedly directing their book to nurses, the authors seem to have forgotten nursing and the hospital except for an occasional referral to the student nurse. Over-simplification rather than the selection of relevant material seems to be the method of justifying the book as appropriate for nurses. The book's platitudes and truisms do not give the reader a level of understanding which would enable her to develop flexible responses to patient behavior. Such psychological concepts as motivation, learning, perception, and the understanding of their relation to behavior are sketchily and inadequately handled. The book does help the nurse to recognize patients' reactions to stress but neglects the equally important task of helping her learn how to counteract those processes which are detrimental to the patients welfare.

The chapters on "Reactions to Illness," "Psychology in Medicine," "Psychology in Education" and "Psychology in Industry" deal with topics which could be most useful to nurses. However, the lack of relevance in the material presented gives the impression that the book has been written only to develop an appreciation of the broad scope of the field of psychology. For example, the authors comment "that in hospitals, work study has many applications, but it has to be remembered that a hospital is not a factory." In what way, then, does the work study relate to the hospital? Does it have implications for nursing? Similarly, the chapter on "Educational Psychology" is centered around elementary education, but does not present material relevant to the nurse despite the fact that health teaching of children and adults is an integral part of nursing. For example, the nurse does health teaching of hospitalized patients to prepare them for self-care at home, (treatment or medication regimens for patients with diabetes, colostomies, dermatological conditions). Active teaching is also performed by the public health nurse in the community and group classes are conducted by nurses in out-patient clinics. Concepts from educational psychology certainly would be applicable, but are not presented. Also, in the material presented on the general development of the personality there is no explanation of how illness and hospitalization add to, or influence adjustments of the individual at particular periods of life, (e.g., psychological adjustment techniques and conflicts normal to adolescence and how these conflicts can be intensified by illness and disease. How does the behavior of hospitalized adolescent reflect such conflict?)

This book offers a "speaking acquaintance" with psychological terminology, a rather didactic definition of such terminology, a limited description of methods of testing and an over-simplified description of human behavior. An explanation of the relevance of the subject material to nursing is not to be found. If a professional nurse in this country is to utilize books in psychology "for nurses" to increase her basic knowledge of psychological concepts and their application in the field of nursing, a more challenging book is necessary than the one presented by Jennifer Jarvis and Dr. John Gibson.

Amor Vincit Omnia

John E. Mayer

Jewish-Gentile Courtships: An Exploratory Study of a Social Process. New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1961. Pp. vii + 240. $5.00.

Reviewed by IRVING SARNOFF

The author, John E. Mayer, is a sociologist with a 1959 PhD from Columbia University. He is now a member of the Sociology Department at Hunter College and maintains a working relationship with the Institute of Welfare Research of the Community Service Society of New York City. Irving Sarnoff, the reviewer, received his PhD in psychology at the University of Michigan in 1951. He stayed on at Michigan for a while, moved to London for a Fulbright year, then came back to Yale University. From Yale he went to the School of Applied Social Sciences at Western Reserve University and, after dropping the present review into the mail from Cleveland, moved to New York and to the position of Professor of Psychology in New York University. His first book, Personality Dynamics and Development, *to be brought out by Wiley in the fall of 1962, gives a good indication of the central core of his interests.*

WITH EXCEPTIONAL zeal, Dr. Mayer set out to track the vagaries of an obstinate Cupid—an intransigent pixie who insists upon shooting his arrows at the most unlikely of partners.

Eschewing the more manageable objective of uncovering determinants of such "static" variables as marital choice and satisfaction, Dr. Mayer sought to capture nothing less than the evanescence and change of courtship itself; its shifting moods and caprices; its fresh breezes and doldrums; its tides and currents.

Using a loosely structured, individual interview as its basic vehicle of research, this study attempts to locate and describe major turnings in the social process that culminates in marriage for individuals who were initially reluctant to woo their mates. Given this reluctance, how does a relationship develop from the couple's first encounter to their wedding? How do they pass from the stage of meeting to that of "interest" and, finally, to that of "involvement"?

Although he might have pursued the answers to these questions by studying other kinds of improbable couples, Dr. Mayer chose Jewish-Gentile ones because of their inherent interest to him. Accordingly, his study sheds some light on a contemporary social phenomenon, while illuminating the general ways in which initial reluctance to associate with members of a given group may be transformed into deep friendships. His initial sample of 45 couples (42 married and 3 engaged) was obtained in New York City and its environs; and, since 4 partners proved to be unavailable for an interview, the gleanings of the study are based upon a total of 86 individuals.

Since his study is meant to be purely exploratory, the author makes no attempts to obtain precise and reliable measurements of variables, collect normative data or test *a priori* hypotheses in a rigorous fashion. Instead, he permits himself the greatest possible freedom in seeking to tease out the types of social events and influences that helped to move reluctant individuals toward the altar; and, conversely, the social obstacles that arose in the path of the ongoing relationship, as well as the means by which the individuals concerned dealt with and transcended them. For example, the author probed into the impact of parents and friends on the progress of the courtship—revealing, among other things, how the opposition of parents and friends often led the beleagured individuals to utilize devices of dissimulation and withdrawal in order to protect their relationship.

Because of the complexity of his subject and the fluidity of his approach to it, Dr. Mayer's presentation is necessarily characterized by a good deal of discursive speculation, punctuated by fascinating and vivid verbatim excerpts from his inteviews. It must be kept in mind, in this regard, that Dr. Mayer was attempting to reconstruct the process of courtship entirely from the reminiscences of his subjects. It should also be recognized that Dr. Mayer's orientation was primarily sociological rather than psychological. On the other hand, the psychologically sophisticated reader may discern fruitful possibilities for applying various psychological theories to an elucidation of the phenomena described. For instance, Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance could be appropriately brought to bear in connection with the ways in which reluctant individuals change their attitudes after they decide to marry someone whom they had habitually regarded as taboo.

Dr. Mayer ends his work with a hypothetical "case history" of a reluctant swain—a composite picture drawn to illustrate and synthesize a host of discrete factors previously mentioned in the book. Although this portrayal is pleasurable to read, it also dramatically testifies to our present inability to formulate firm generalizations about the course of true love. Thus, as behavioral scientists, we may feel frustrated by this study. However, as members of the human race, we can take heart in one of its pervasive implications: these successful courtships remind us that our most precious emotion is capable of melting the incrustations of custom and prejudice.

Is Demonstration Proof?

William C. Cruickshank, Frances A. Bentzen, Frederick H. Ratzeburg and Marian T. Tannhauser.

A Teaching Method for Brain-Injured and Hyperactive Children. Syracuse, N. Y.: Syracuse University Press, 1961. (Syracuse University Special Education and Rehabilitation Monograph Series 6.) Pp. xxi + 576. $7.95.

Reviewed by CHARLES R. STROTHER

William Cruickshank, principal author of the present book, is Professor of Education and Psychology at Syracuse University, Dean of the University's Summer Session and Director of the Education of Exceptional Children. The reviewer, Charles R. Strother, did his doctoral work with Seashore and Travis at the University of Iowa, and for twenty-five years or more has concerned himself with the understanding and treatment of handicapped children. In the thirties, he established a speech and hearing clinic at the University of Washington and for several years in Washington he also directed a mobile clinic for the State Department of Public Instruction. Back in Iowa again, in the 1940's he was Chief Psychologist for the Iowa Hospitals and for the Crippled Children's Service. He has had consultative relationships with a large number of both national and local organizations and institutions concerned with crippled children. Since returning to the University of Washington he has donned three hats: he is Professor of Psychology, Professor of Clinical Psychology in Medicine, and Director of The Multidisciplinary Pilot School for Brain Injured and Mentally Retarded Children.

IN A WELL-DESIGNED and carefully controlled field study conducted in

the Montgomery County, Maryland public schools, Professor Cruickshank and his collaborators have attempted to test the effectiveness of an educational program, based on principles derived from the work of Strauss and Lehtinen, for hyperactive children.

The educational program involved: 1) reduced environmental stimuli; 2) reduced space; 3) a structured school program and life plan; and, 4) an increase in the stimulus value of teaching materials designed specifically for the experimental group. Forty children with IQ's above 50 (mean IQ = 80), and ranging in age from approximately 7 to 11 years, were selected on the basis of having shown hyperactive, aggressive behavior and educational retardation. They were divided into four carefully matched groups, in each of which there was an equal number of children with diagnosed brain injury and children showing similar behavioral and psychometric patterns but without any conclusive evidence of brain injury. The two experimental groups were placed in specially designed classrooms in one school; the control groups were placed in typical special education classes in two separate schools. The four teachers were matched in terms of teaching strength and professional maturity. Teachers of the experimental groups were given six weeks of training in the special methods to be used. Teachers of the control groups were free to use methods of their choice, within the limits of the policies of the Department of Special Education. An extensive battery of tests was administered at the beginning and the end of the academic year. At the end of the first year, the experimental groups were dissolved and all children were placed in regular special education classes. Tests were readministered at the end of the second year.

The general results may be briefly stated. There were no significant changes in IQ scores for either the experimental or the control groups. On visual-perceptual tests, the experimental groups showed significantly greater gains during the first year but these gains were not maintained during the second year. Changes in educational achievement during the first year could not be measured because hyperactivity, distractibility, perseveration and inability to follow directions made it impossible to test a sufficient number of children at the beginning of the year. By the end of the second year, all children were testable and all groups had shown significant improvement in academic achievement.

Current interest in the establishment of special programs for the so-called "brain-injured" child make this study a timely one. The book thoroughly describes the instructional materials and educational methods used and the amount of detail will be stimulating and useful to teachers of special education classes. The clinical and school psychologist will find much of interest in the psychometric data, in the histories and in the diagnostic summaries. A more thorough experimental study of an educational program for the hyperactive child in a public school setting would be difficult to devise and even more difficult to conduct. Professor Cruickshank and his associates have done an impressive job in bringing this complex, multidisciplinary research to a successful conclusion.

One of the basic problems of research in this field is the problem of the criteria to be used to define the population. The authors are well aware of this pitfall and discuss it at some length; but they do not succeed in circumventing it. The design called for the selection of children who "were characterized by hyperactive, aggressive behavior and who were educationally retarded." These were to be divided into two subgroups: 1) those with clinically diagnosed neurological and medical evidence of brain injury, and 2) those with similar behavior and learning disabilities but without conclusive evidence of central nervous system damage. The only explicit definition of hyperactivity is that used in the neurological examination: "If the child responded to the examiner and appeared interested in the examination procedures, he was not classified as hyperactive." By this criterion, a considerable number of the subjects were not hyperactive. What different criteria of hyperactivity were used by other participants in the study is nowhere made explicit. "Aggressive" behavior is not defined and was apparently judged on the basis of anecdotal evidence available at the time of the initial screening. The following statement is also puzzling: "While neurological examination and pediatric history supported the fact that brain injury was undoubtedly present, the Diagnostic Team members were frequently reluctant to agree that a brain injury or other form of central nervous system disorder did actually exist." Because of this disagreement, no attempt was made to compare data for the brain-injured and the "not-presumably-brain-injured" group.

A second major problem is the very great range and variability of inter- and intra-individual differences in such children. The differences are so complex that a critical test of the differential effects of particular instructional methods is difficult, both theoretically and practically. The authors discuss the possibility of defining more homogeneous groups, both for research and for instructional purposes, on the basis of sub-test response patterns.

While the authors' recognition of these problems and of the uncontrolled variables that may have been involved led them to look upon this as a "demonstration-pilot study" and to interpret their results with caution, they still affirm their confidence in the effectiveness of the method used. The proper verdict is probably the Scotch verdict: "Not proven." The period of only one year, as the authors recognized in the beginning, may well be too short a time to determine the effectiveness of special training. Since the skills in which these children are most defective are basic perceptual-motor skills acquired by normal children at a relatively early age, this type of training may prove to be more effective with younger children. Any form of individual or group psychotherapy or counseling for parents or children was intentionally avoided. While significant gains were made without any therapy, these gains might well have been greater or more rapid if some of the emotional factors present in almost all cases could have been dealt with more directly.

Managing Lights and Sights

H. C. Weston

Sight Light and Work (2nd edition of ***Sight Light and Efficiency)*** London: H. K. Lewis, 1962. Pp. xii + 284. Pounds 3.5.0. net.

Reviewed by RICHARD H. HENNEMAN

The author, H. C. Weston, is a Fellow and Past-President of the British Illuminating Engineering Society. He has done extensive research on various visual problems relating to industrial efficiency and has worked with both the Medical Research Council and the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research in Great Britain. The reviewer, Richard Henneman, is an experimental psychologist who studied with Frank Geldard at the University of Virginia and then went to Columbia University for his PhD under Woodworth. During World War II he served in the AAF Aviation Psychology Program and, for a time immediately after the war, as an aviation psychologist with the newly formed USAF Strategic Air Command. He came to the University of Virginia in 1947 where he is now Professor of Psychology. He is currently interested in research on response biasing in visual perception and an attempted experimental distinction between "stimulus determined" perception and "observer-determined" perception, the latter being defined in terms of biased responses.

THIS book, *Sight, Light and Work* is the second edition of a work published in 1949 by the same author under the title, *Sight, Light and Efficiency*. The stated objective of the earlier edition was to provide an account of the inter-related visual variables determining work efficiency, an account which might serve as the basis "for the best management of sight and sights in work." The three classes of visual variables discussed were: (1) the visual capacities of the worker; (2) the visual tasks involved at work; and (3) the characteristics of the illumination provided in the workplace. The first edition was written from an essentially practical standpoint, being designed to guide the effective management of illumination, task facilitation, and the protection of sight at work.

Mr. Weston has effectively accomplished this same goal in the revision. His work succeeds in integrating information from several fields of investigation pertaining to the sense of sight in the industrial job situation. Numerous principles and some techniques have been gathered from anatomy, physiology and medicine; from physical optics and illuminating engineering; from industrial engineering and applied experimental psychology. Within the covers of a single volume of moderate size, (280 pages) the author has presented a clear and relatively non-technical treatment of the principal factors contributing to visual efficiency in the industrial workplace: the visual sense, the testing of visual capacities, and the protection of sight; the principal characteristics of environmental illumination and their measurement; the sensory capacities and the illumination requirements demanded by a wide assortment of industrial tasks. Recognized, though hardly stressed sufficiently, are individual differences in visual efficiency, in preferences for illumination and in work output. These industrial "facts of life" make it peculiarly difficult to draw broad conclusions relative to work efficiency.

The author has amply illustrated his principles with a variety of factory tasks, especially in the chapters describing the sensory requirements of various occupations. He includes an abundance of pictures, diagrams, charts and graphs illustrating the details of the principles and devices described. The topics are presented to the reader in broad generalizations, with little emphasis upon the difficulties, complexities and inconsistencies which plague this type of industrial research. Critical discussion of opposing theoretical considerations is noticeably lacking. Perhaps a more careful citation of experimental evidence would have been desirable in the treatment of some topics, notably in the chapters on task facilitation and environmental color. In the chapter on task facilitation there is scant reference to the extensive research on visual displays of various types, a shortcoming of the book that seems particularly unfortunate. No research support (if indeed, any such exists) is presented in the discussion of the effects of environmental color on job satisfaction or job performance.

American readers will probably note the scant attention given in Weston's book to relevant research conducted in the United States, especially that relating to equipment design, job simplification and the learning of motor skills. Inclusion of some of these studies would have strengthened materially the chapter on the facilitation of visual tasks. This reviewer wondered mildly at the order of the chapters, but this is a feature of small importance.

In spite of some definite limitations, some of them perhaps inevitable in a guidebook to practical industrial management, Mr. Weston has achieved a remarkably successful integration of principles and procedures from a number of diverse fields of study. His book should provide a mine of useful information to a wide variety of readers interested in a non-technical account of the complex factors interacting in the determination of visual work efficiency.

Prince: I never thought to hear you speak again.

King: Thy wish was father, Harry, to that thought.

—WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE

ON THE OTHER HAND

In this Department CP *invites discussion of reviews and of books reviewed. Here is the place for that kind of intellectual dissent that promotes progress in understanding. Let your criticism be* ad verbum, *not* ad hominem. *Seldom does a criticism merit more than half the space of the text criticized—never more than equal space and then only when the letter is interesting and well written.* CP *edits letters when it thinks they should be. Single-spaced letters will be returned for double-spacing.*

ON THE CHARACTER OF CHARACTER: A REJOINDER

I gather that Professor McGuire *(CP* Oct., 1962, **7,** 388) feels that I did not express sufficient enthusiasm in my review of *The Psychology of Character Development (CP,* June, 1962, **7,** 223-224) and that my inclinations toward other methodological approaches to moral behavior caused me to fail to recognize fully the book's significance. If his dissent consisted merely of a more optimistic view of the book in question, I would not impose upon *CP's* readers a defense of my own opinion. I feel constrained to reply, however, to what I consider to be distortions of my original reservations, quotation of comment out of context, and certain misrepresentations of the study by Peck et al. It is always more pleasant to be enthusiastic than to be ambivalent, but I find, after a new search of the book and of my own reactions to the points raised by Professor McGuire, that I am not disposed to retract anything I wrote.

Perhaps the central point that needs to be made is that the questions raised in the review dealt primarily with conceptual issues and only briefly with points of methodology. They were addressed to the "character of character" and much less to the character of the author's methods. It was pointed out, for example, that the distinctions and similarities which they drew between the various "dimensions" of moral character were difficult to comprehend without a more formal analysis of the nature and properties of internalized moral responses. This difficulty is only highlighted when one attempts to make a comparison between their work and the closely reasoned, detailed analyses of morality made by Piaget. The review also observed, while recognizing the assets of the broad assessment used by the authors, that the specific developmental antecedents of moral dispositions could not easily be inferred from correlations between adolescent behavior and patterns of family interaction expressed in terms of consistency and trust. My reservations were not about the generality of the concepts and variables used, but rather about what I perceived as their failure to illuminate the processes of derivation of a socially learned phenomenon. Other studies of the relationship between moral character and family interaction have given attention to such processes, and certainly developmental psychologists familiar with the studies of Miller and Swanson *(Inner conflict and defense,* 1960), Sears, Maccoby, and Levin *(Patterns of child rearing,* 1957), or Whiting and Child *(Child training and personality,* 1953) will find it strange to read Professor McGuire's statement that we are to regard the book under discussion as the first to concern itself with such relationships.

As to the methods used by Peck et al., I do not think that anything in the review would give anyone the right to presume that I am opposed to them. I myself used almost all of them in a recent study of the socialization of moral behavior (Aronfreed, J. *J. abnorm. soc. Psychol.,* 1961, **61,** 223-240). I remain astonished, however, at the procedure of having individual judges make their ratings after they had reached a consensus through group discussion about each subject. The only exception to this procedure actually represented in the final report was in a few ratings of Developmental-Task Achievement, and the judges were already in the midst of arriving at a consensus of all other aspects of the data when these "independent" ratings were made.

It is somewhat interesting that, among the many limitations which I ascribed to a "Darwinian" approach to moral development, Professor McGuire should single out what was noted as an other-directedness in the authors' description of rational-altruistic behavior on the part of Ralph, their illustrative case. Professor McGuire's dissent here touches upon the subtle problem of defining what is "good" or "right" in terms of the social estimates of one's peers. I am still persuaded that the authors, in presenting Ralph at the pinnacle of psychogenetic stages of morality, tried to make natural philosophy out of what is their own brand of moral philosophy. It is true that Ralph appears to stand up to visibly unjustified attacks upon himself or others, but he clearly has social support in the two or three instances described. We may infer, from the distinction which Pect et al. make between rational-altruistic and irrational-conscientious behavior, that Ralph would respond differently in the absence of social support. Their portrayal of the irrational-conscientious person speaks for itself: "This is the person who judges a given act according to his own internal standard of right and wrong—conformity to the group code is not the issue. Rather, it is conformity to a code he has internalized and believes in. If he approves of an act he sees as honest, he carries it out whether or not the people around him approve." Apparently, Ralph is too "well-adjusted" to respond in that fashion. I continue to have the conviction that the authors have confused sociometric status with moral stature.

JUSTIN ARONFREED
University of Pennsylvania

If we learn to dream we may find out the truth; but let us avoid publishing our dreams before they have been tested by wide-awake intelligence.

—FRIEDRICH AUGUST KEKULE

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A successful test is worth a thousand theories.

—E. R. MERTZ

CONTE[illegible]RARY PSYCHOLOGY

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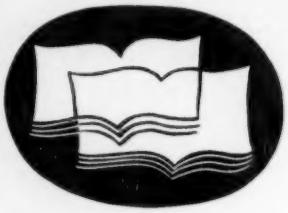

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